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## *THE LIBRARY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.*

SOMETHING more than a year ago a law was passed by the Legislature of New Jersey, providing that the State Treasurer shall pay over the sum of twenty dollars to every school district that shall raise a like amount by subscription for the purpose of establishing within such district a school library, and to procure philosophical and chemical apparatus; and ten dollars annually on the raising of a like sum, for the purpose of adding to the library or the apparatus.

I have not seen the full text of this enactment, but in a newspaper article in which it is referred to as "one of the wisest and most beneficent" in the annals of New Jersey legislation, and proceeding from a "benignant and generous government," the proposed library is clearly expected to be of a popular character, for circulation among the pupils. "The books," says the journal in question, "would at once find greedy applicants in the country children, who are debarred the advantages enjoyed by the children in towns and cities; and," it goes on to say, "the incentive which it would give to the thirst for knowledge, and the intelligence which it would diffuse, is almost beyond conception." More than this: "We could devise no greater or more acceptable godsend to at least two-thirds of the school districts of this State."

Now, if this is a correct view of the intention of the framers of the law—and a Trenton newspaper ought to be well-informed on this point—our law-givers were neither so wise, nor their device so novel, as the writer from whom I have quoted imagined them to be. Nearly forty years ago the Superintendent of Public Schools in the State of New York advanced in his report a project of district school libraries exactly similar to that which has just been revived, and in 1835 authority was given to school districts to raise by tax \$20 for this purpose. They showed, however, the most complete indifference to this privilege—not because they were intelligent enough to perceive the futility of the scheme, but for the simple reason that school districts everywhere, and particularly the rural districts, are not in the habit of complaining that they cannot tax themselves as much as they would like in behalf of public instruction, but esteem themselves fortunate if not constrained by bribes or threats to be decently liberal in equipping and sustaining their schools. In New York, efforts certainly praiseworthy, however misdirected, were made to coax the districts into availing themselves of the permission accorded by law. Individuals came forward with offers to raise one-fourth of the required amount if the district would raise the remaining three-fourths; even public lectures were used to persuade the apathetic districts, but all in vain. The next step was more successful. In 1838 the Governor was got to recommend what was called after its passage “the glorious library law,” which appropriated \$53,000 annually for three years (afterwards extended to five), to be distributed to school districts that raised an equal amount by tax for school libraries. In 1840, says the author of the “Daily Public School in the United States,”\* to whom I am indebted for these particulars, nearly \$100,000 were expended for such libraries, filling the Superintendent’s breast with joy, and leading him to expect that in the course of five years “two millions of valuable books” would be in circulation “among those who most need them and are most unable to procure them,” and whose minds would “thus be diverted

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\* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1866.

from frivolous and injurious occupations, and employed upon the productions of the wise and learned of all ages." He too felt, like our Trenton editor, that it would be impossible "to set bounds to the mighty influence that would operate upon the moral and intellectual character of the State."

It is a very obvious reflection that if the district librarians are fairly chargeable with the present "moral and intellectual character" of New York State, the projector of them has little reason to be remembered with gratitude as a benefactor of mankind. In fact, however, the experiment early proved an entire failure. The school libraries which in 1858 numbered 1,402,253 volumes, numbered nearly 300,000 less in 1864, and their usefulness may be assumed to have diminished in a still larger ratio. The market which they opened for the sale of juvenile literature was a tempting one to both authors and publishers, and the quality of the supply which followed so extensive a demand may easily be guessed. Since their day not only has our literature undergone thorough change and marked improvement, but the newspaper and periodical have achieved an enormous development, affording the greatest variety of good reading, adapted to every capacity, and leaving nothing to be desired in amount or cheapness.

Just twenty years after New York had begun to be agitated on this subject, the Ohio legislature (in 1853) enacted that one-tenth of a mill on the dollar should be assessed on all the property taxable for State purposes, and the proceeds applied to the purchase of a library and apparatus for the common schools. The State Commissioner was to select them, the county auditor (through the township clerks) to distribute them, and the local school authorities to be responsible for their safe keeping and use. In 1860 this law was repealed, leaving the libraries of course *in statu quo*. Their status differed in different localities. In some, the books were in good condition "because not used," or "because locked up." In some, they were to be found in private libraries, where they had remained for years. In other places, not a few, the books remained in the original packages, having never been opened.

Again twenty years pass away, and New Jersey, appa-

rently profiting nothing by the experience of her sister States, revives the experiment which they have discarded. If this were the first occasion on which the terms "school library" and "philosophical apparatus" occurred together in legislation, we should be justified in thinking the books as well as the instruments designed to form part of the teacher's outfit—along with the globes, the wall-maps, and the blackboards. Against this, however, we seem to have the Ohio precedent, if I rightly interpret the word "apparatus" therein used; and must conclude that in the minds of our New Jersey legislators, the district libraries had no other distinct purpose than to serve as the nucleus of a public library, of which half-grown boys and girls were to be the principal if not the only patrons. Nor can we, on examination, allow the law even so much merit as might be asserted for it on the strength of the philosophical apparatus which it provides, or paves the way for procuring. If there can be any choice of the means by which money is wasted, it is hazarding nothing to say that the purchase of such apparatus is far more to be deprecated than that of a circulating library. For this judgment it will be sufficient to assign two reasons, viz., that in the present state of scientific instruction in our public schools the need of illustrative apparatus cannot be said to exist, nor are there teachers capable of using it to advantage; and that as lumber it is almost valueless, whereas paper is always worth something by the pound. Which of us who received his education at the East, in one of those grammar schools which are the pride of New England, does not remember the cabinet of philosophical toys—the air-pump and electrical machine conspicuous among the rest, with various paradoxical contrivances to illustrate the centre of gravity, such as the Leaning Tower of Pisa, and the horse and rider always rearing on the brink of a precipice but never toppling over, though weighed down with a curved wire and leaden ball at the end? Who does not remember how seldom during the term this cabinet was opened, and how few of its treasures explored—how few, I now fear, our teacher knew the use of at all? And who will ever forget his part at the annual exhibition in July—perhaps to make



ice, by evaporation, with the thermometer at 90° and perspiration in every pore? or the cramming into him of the formula of the text-book, which he was supposed to speak from the most perfect comprehension not only of the laws governing the particular experiment, but of all natural laws ever dreamed of by committee-men?

Our Trenton editor is doubtless right, and the New Jersey statute is neither more nor less respectable in its intention than the unprofitable legislation on the same subject of New York and Ohio. Perhaps in all these instances some good has been or will have been done in favored communities, where a few men of intelligence and public spirit, having the will and leisure to attend to it, have selected the books. In the nature of the case, however, their enthusiasm and supervision cannot last always, and there comes a day when the collection makes no progress, becomes dead, and is neglected or dispersed. It is useless to enumerate the reasons why a school library for the pupils' sake should not be encouraged and cannot possibly succeed—at least for any length of time. I have already pointed out the competition which it has to endure with the cheap periodical literature of the day, and this alone would furnish a sufficient argument for condemning it. But we have still—we New-England Jerseymen—some interest in the question: Is the New Jersey statute utterly worthless, or worse than worthless? and ought we to strive to get it repealed? On the contrary, it seems to me capable of being turned to very good account, if we disregard the superfluous part of it—the “philosophical and chemical apparatus”—which is optional, and impart a new but not contradictory meaning to the remainder: the school library.

I spent half an hour, a few weeks since, in passing through the rooms of the Orange High and Grammar School, when not in session, with a view to spying out what provision existed for thorough instruction apart from the sum of knowledge comprehended in the text-book and the teacher's mind. I saw what I expected—all the approved arrangements for the comfort of the scholars, but almost none of the aids on which a teacher should rely to confirm or supplement his own knowledge, to correct or illustrate the text-

book, to economize his time by directing the pupil to seek for himself the information desired. In the little rack on each teacher's desk, I saw chiefly the books used in the recitations of the class, and as a rule (though I did not visit every room) the only book of reference was a Webster's Dictionary. If any other was observed, it had the appearance of being the teacher's personal property, not a part of the regular furniture of the school. I do not recall a single wall-map or globe, nor a single picture on the walls except a photograph of the school-building itself. The only ornament visible, except the posies that marked the affection of scholar for mistress, were a few drawings on the blackboard in colored chalk—one, I remember, of a cow as green as the grass she must have fed on. There were no cyclopædias, no dictionaries of language or of technics, no atlases better than the pupils themselves made use of. Apparently, the text-book was, for both the tutor and the taught, the be-all and end-all of education.

I say this not in reprobation of any person connected with the school in question, but in order to bring out as vividly as I can the need which I feel to be a pressing one in any school thus destitute of the higher resources of education. It is this weakness which the New Jersey law permits us to remove, and which I think it the duty of all who have at heart the development of our public schools to the highest possible perfection, to strive to remove. The late principal, as I am informed, was aware of the law providing for district school libraries, and last year succeeded in raising the twenty dollars which entitled his district to a subsidy from the State in like amount. I have been unable, however, to learn what disposition was made of the money thus earned, and can only conjecture, from my own observation, that it availed little to supply the great deficiency I have described.\* My object in reading this paper to-night is to urge the fitness of the New England Society to take the initiative in this matter for the present year. The Society has just passed its second anniversary, and has as yet done nothing to exhibit to the people of Orange that phase of its consti-

\* [NOTE BY THE WRITER.—I have since learned that a fair attempt was made to procure a library of reference, and that Appleton's Cyclopædia and perhaps other works were obtained.]

tution which is embodied in the Committee of Public Welfare. Meantime our funds have been slowly increasing, retarded only by our very light expenses, and we are quite in a condition to gratify any disposition we may have, to make the public our debtor. It was well understood, at the beginning, that our aid to useful enterprises would be less by downright gifts, covering the entire need, than by judicious conditional gifts calculated to stimulate others to their duty in the premises. It is in this way that I propose, and would formally move, that the Society act; for the sake of procuring for the High and Grammar School a library of reference, together with such other aids to instruction (stereoscopes and photographic views, for example) as should properly accompany it. I would have the Society publicly announce at its meeting in October, that it will contribute fifty dollars towards this object, provided the community will raise forty—to which the State will then add ten, making a round hundred. I would further have it stipulated that this money should be expended under the direction of a Committee named by this Society, but including the principal of the High School, and at least one member of the Board of Education. And finally, I would follow the excellent example of a public library near Boston, and arrange for raising the forty dollars in small sums, to awaken as widespread an interest as possible, and bring home to the greatest number of persons a sense of their responsibility for the efficiency of our public schools.

I ask permission, Mr. President, to give notice now that I shall bring this subject up in October, and endeavor to obtain the above-mentioned appropriation of fifty dollars, subject to the conditions already set forth.—[*A paper read before the New England Society of Orange, N. J., June 13, 1872.*]

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If you would not be thought a fool in others' conceit, be not wise in your own; he that trusts to his own wisdom, proclaims his own folly; he is truly wise that shall appear so, that hath folly enough to be thought not worldly wise, or wisdom enough to see his own folly.

*THE HOFUYL SCHOOL.*

THE agricultural and educational establishment founded by M. de Fellenberg, at Hofuyl (a league and a half from Berne), has acquired great celebrity. We visited it yesterday for the first time. M. de Fellenberg, who was walking in the shade of the trees near the house, with some of his pupils, was the first person we met. Being at leisure, a rare circumstance with him, he had the goodness to show us over the establishment and explain its working himself. To avail ourselves as far as possible of his kindness, we spent the evening at Hofuyl, and slept in the vicinity. Agriculture was not my principal object: it will therefore suffice to say, that I noticed well-kept fields, where not a weed was to be seen, and fine meadows which fifteen years before were a vast turf bog. M. de Fellenberg performed an admirable work in draining this swamp; the stagnant waters saturating the soil now flow over its surface, irrigating the fields they formerly drowned. Every four years the land is turned up with an exceedingly strong plow, formerly drawn by fourteen horses, and removing stones at a depth of two feet, but now requiring only six. It is possible that this process would not succeed everywhere, for there are few general rules in agriculture unsusceptible of local exceptions. The buildings of all kinds are in the best condition.

My curiosity was now attracted by a troop of young boys returning from the fields, with their working implements in their hands, and following a man of about thirty. They greeted M. de Fellenberg with a nod and a smile as they passed. We followed the troop of young workmen to their dwelling, a low house, very unpretentious, fifty paces from that of M. de Fellenberg. They were about forty in number, between the ages of eight and eighteen, dressed in short jackets and trowsers of coarse cotton cloth, their feet and heads bare, but appearing perfectly contented and healthy. Their apartments, on the first story, consist of two large rooms, one, the dormitory, provided with mattresses, sheets and blankets on a platform along the walls, as in a guard-house (*corps-de-garde*), the whole very clean; the other is

furnished with two long tables with their forms, and several cupboards, in which the pupils arrange their collections of plants, specimens of soils and rocks, mechanical drawings, etc. When the weather is very hot, they take their meals in a shed near the house.

While waiting for supper, the young man, the leader of the troop, whose name is Vehrli, intoned a national, historical and religious hymn, which the pupils sang in parts, with great precision, thus showing themselves to be as good musicians as they were industrious laborers. For supper they had soup, vegetables and milk, after which they amused themselves with various games, wherein the mind took greater part than the body, inasmuch as the labors of the day furnish sufficient exercise for the latter. The game we witnessed consisted of guessing a thought from a given number of questions. Reading aloud followed; three grammatical and arithmetical questions were proposed, in which the pupils appeared to take great interest, and generally answered very correctly: the calculations were made mentally. After we had retired we heard them singing some time longer; the voices, however, insensibly died away, and before nine o'clock, all these young people were in bed, having to rise at five in the morning. The pupils begin the day with a lesson of half an hour, breakfast in much the same manner as they supped, work in the fields from six to twelve, dine, have an hour's lesson and return to the fields till six. On Sundays, the lessons occupy six instead of two hours: they have meat on that day alone. A perfect simplicity was observable in all I saw; nothing theatrical, no attempt to shine at the expense of others. The pupils did not seem to perceive that they were being looked at, and the presence of M. de Fellenberg imposed no restraint on them. Such were my first impressions of what I saw at Hofuyl; I will return to the subject of the school for the poor, a *school of industry* as it is called.

M. de Fellenberg's house is regular and of good appearance; when we entered a great number of young people of the *high school* were assembled. The greater number of them belong to the first families of Germany, Russia and Switzerland. Madame de Fellenberg, who, with the best

grace in the world, shares the sacrifice made by her husband, of the enjoyments of the high society in which they were both born, and the duties he has imposed on himself, had the kindness to retain us for supper.

A large table in the shape of a horse-shoe, occupied three sides of a large hall. Seventy or eighty young men, several professors and the family of M. de Fellenberg took their seats at it. The repast was abundant and simple, the pupils conversing freely with each other. We took leave of M. de Fellenberg, full of interest for an establishment, respecting which we had received much information, and of which we could foresee the importance. I intend to read the different reports which have been drawn up, so as to guide my inquiries when I return here with more leisure at my command. I will then give the results.

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The short visit I made last year to Hofuyl, having only sharpened my curiosity, I did not fail to return, better prepared to inspect the establishment of M. de Fellenberg with profit. He was so good as to reply to all the questions I asked during my several visits to him, and to furnish me with all the accounts and information I required. This extraordinary man first became known as a skilful agriculturist, and he has still an agricultural institute at the chateau of Bucksee near Hofuyl, but agriculture was always a secondary object with him, and the hope of rendering it a means of education for the people, gave it its greatest importance in his eyes. And truly, though the improvement of agriculture tends to increase the number of men, education alone can render them better and happier. Gifted with a generous and ardent character, M. de Fellenberg adopted at an early age, the principles of that liberalism, which was soon to be so cruelly abused. The disappointment he felt at a result so contrary to his hopes, gave him the most unfavorable opinion of the moral state of mankind; but he none the less clung to the hope that an improved system of education might yet save it. An accidental circumstance which would have made less impression on a mind more habituated to worldly affairs, and otherwise disposed, decided M. de Fellenberg's vocation for ever. Attached to

the Swiss Legation (at Paris), after the French invasion he had a conversation with Rewbel, at his country house at Areneil, near Paris, in the course of which he (M. de Fellenberg) represented the afflicted state of his country, and the danger that would result; independently of all considerations of justice, from exciting a man like that of La Vendée, equally disastrous to both parties. The Director appeared to listen with attention, and M. de Fellenberg began to flatter himself that he had made some impression on his mind, and even awakened sentiments of humanity in his heart, when suddenly interrupting the touching speech and his own reflections alike, he called a servant who was passing, and told him to bring a basket containing a favorite spaniel and its pups, and it became at once impossible to withdraw his attention from them, or even to believe that it had been for an instant awakened. "Entirely disgusted with diplomacy," said M. de Fellenberg, from whom I had the anecdote; "I took leave of a spot and career to which I was so unsuited, resolved to undertake the long and laborious work of an elementary reform, by means of education, and to persevere in it all my life."

His was to prove, by an experiment on a large scale, that the children of the poor can, by a better employment of their time, cultivate their understandings and provide for their wants at the same time, so that at twenty-one years of age a young man should be well educated and able to earn his living, having already reimbursed his family for the cost of his education and maintenance. The peasants of his neighborhood at first were little disposed to submit their children to the experiment, but M. de Fellenberg had foreseen the obstacles he would have to encounter from them: he required pupils of whom he would be the master, and he took them, where he could, sometimes from begging on the highway. He had the good fortune to find an able coadjutor in a young man of the name of Vehrli, the son of a school-master of Thurgovie, who came to Hofuyl in 1809, to inspect the establishment, and was so struck with M. de Fellenberg's plan, that he offered his son, then a bright eighteen year old, as assistant. This young man, at first admitted to the table of M. de Fellenberg, soon left it for



that of the pupils, whom since then he has never quitted day or night ; working with them in the fields, sharing their sports and learning himself what he had to teach. His zeal has not flagged for an instant during ten years of exertion. The number of pupils is at present thirty-nine ; they are treated as they would be at home, their obedience is of a filial character, and there has scarcely ever been need of any punishment.

I have already given an account of the distribution of their time. The pupils are divided into three classes, according to age and strength : the work of each class is entered every evening into a book, specifying the kind of labor, so as to place the value to the debit of such and such crop, such and such a building, to the cattle, the machine making, etc. The work of the first class (the youngest) is calculated at half a kreutzer per hour, that of the second at a kreutzer, and that of the third at two kreutzers. The day's work (ten hours) of a pupil of the third class is thus paid at 20 kreutzers (15 French sous, or American cents) whilst the day's work of a laborer is worth 24 sous. Thus the worth of the work is far from being exaggerated. In winter, when there is nothing to do in the fields, the pupils are employed in sedentary occupations, such as plating straw for chairs, basket-making, sawing and splitting wood, thrashing grain, grinding paints, helping the wheelwright, carpenter, or other handicraftsmen dwelling at Hofuyl.—  
*Translated from M. Simon's Voyage en Suisse.*

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At the last meeting of the Trustees of the Boston University, it was decided to open a College of Music, adapted to the wants of graduates of musical conservatories and academies, and provided with higher and more varied facilities for musical education than have hitherto been obtainable in this country. Dr. E. Tourjee was elected Dean of the Faculty. The course of instruction laid out covers a period of three years.

*GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.*

UNITED STATES.—Extensive diamond fields which, whatever may be the value of their products, seem likely to offer a wild career to speculation, have been announced rather vaguely as existing near the headwaters of the Rio Colorado Chiquito (Little Colorado), a stream which actually takes its rise in New Mexico, but for the most part flows through Arizona north-westerly from the 34th parallel (long. 109° W.) Diamonds, rubies, sapphires, and emeralds, it is said, have already been obtained in satisfactory quantities, and we hear of the formation of a San Francisco and New York Mining Company, with a capital of ten millions. The diamonds compare favorably with those derived from South America and South Africa. Rubies have also been found near Prescott, in Arizona, and the foot-hills of the Pinal Mountains (north of the Gila) are also alleged to be the true seat of the diamond diggings. From New Mexico, on the borders of Arizona, in what are called the Ant Hills, "several pints of precious and doubtful stones" have been brought in by a party making a geological expedition from Fort Wingate to Albuquerque. What with gold and diamond hunters it is certain that Arizona will shortly be opened up for settlement, and we may expect rich additions not only to geography but also to archæology, as the whole region we have indicated abounds in remains of an ancient civilization. A map of lower Arizona and New Mexico, embracing the locality of the reported mines, is contained in Pumpelly's "Across America and Asia" (New York: Holt & Williams).

—A member of the Yellowstone Expedition now in progress gives the following list of the personnel :

Dr. F. V. Hayden, U. S. geologist; has been in that department sixteen years, and has also completed a geological survey of Nebraska, county by county. His mother and one sister now reside at Rochester, N. Y. Mr. James Stevenson has been with Dr. Hayden seventeen years, and probably has as much knowledge of the Rocky Mountains as any man living. He is well acquainted with the fellow travelers of Capt. Bonneville, so eloquently described by Washington

Irving, as well as all the Indian tribes within the range as far north as Dakota. Without Mr. Stevenson a trip of this kind would be next to impossible, as he is an experienced packer and is well versed in the scientific objects of the expedition. Adams, reporter of the *Herald* and the *Times* of New York, and the *Enquirer* of Philadelphia, from Philadelphia, Pa. Prof. Bradley, Knoxville, Tenn., assistant geologist. He will take charge of the geology of the Snake River country. Beckler, topographer, Pennsylvania. Beveridge, assistant topographer, son of Col. Beveridge, Chicago, Illinois. Brown, assistant, District Columbia; Burck, topographer, New York, and was assistant engineer under Gov. Walker on the Southern Pacific Railway Survey; Jackson, photographer, New York; Campbell, assistant photographer, Omaha, Nebraska; Carrington, ichthyologist, Virginia; Coulter, botanist, Maryland; Easlack, assistant meteorologist, Philadelphia, Pa.; Herring, topographer, Pennsylvania, and engineer on Fairmount Park, Philadelphia; Holmes, artist, District Columbia; Jacox, assistant ornithologist, New York; Merriam, ornithologist, New York, and son of Congressman Merriam, Lewis county, New York; Logan, secretary to expedition, and nephew to Senator Logan, of Illinois; Jones, assistant, Rochester, and nephew to Dr. Hayden; Negley, assistant, Pittsburgh, Pa., son of Congressman Negley, and graduate of naval school, Annapolis; Nicholson, meteorologist, District Columbia; Platt, assistant ornithologist, Waterbury, Conn.; Dr. Peale, mineralogist, Philadelphia, Pa.; Savage, assistant, Lawrence, Kas.; Spencer, guest, St. Paul, Minn., and nephew of Longford, commissioner of Yellowstone Park; Taggart, assistant, Ohio; West, assistant, Ohio, and son of Judge West, of the Supreme Court of Ohio; Gonnet, astronomer, Massachusetts; Prof. Wakefield, assistant astronomer, Ohio.

ASIA.—Who has not sympathized with the map colorist, obliged, in times not so long past, to mark with his brush the kingdoms, principalities, palatinates, counties, duchies, and enclaves innumerable of divided Germany, where now one broad splash of blue or yellow paint suffices? His improved condition is visible also in United Italy; and even the vast political areas of Asia promise to become still vaster and simpler for him to designate. Indeed, it will soon be (all but historically) absurd to bound our maps of Europe by the Ural Mountains and the Caspian, when, if we give the Russian Cæsar his due, we shall picture his undivided domain as extending from the Baltic to the Pacific, and forming part of a grand division once the smallest of all but now competing with Asia itself—or what is left of the Asia of the atlases of the present day. The Russian Empire

at this moment practically contains, besides Siberia, the whole of Turkestan, a large part of Soongaria, and an indefinite part of Mantchooria; and those who pretend to divine the purpose of the Muscovite Government predict also the speedy absorption of Afghanistan and Corea. In short, the Empire of the near future may embrace all of Asia lying north of the 40th parallel (*i. e.* north of Pekin and Cashgar) with as much of Turkestan as lies south of it, and whatever other territory may have been acquired beyond the Hindoo-Koosh Mountains. We shall attempt a brief outline of the order and extent of the later acquisitions.

By imperial decree of March 1, 1866, the southern boundary of Russian Turkestan was declared to run from the Sea of Aral to Lake Issik-Kuk. In 1868 Khudayar Khan, the ruler of Khokan, having been defeated in battle by the Russians at Tashkend, ceded them a significant part of his territory, and entered into a commercial treaty satisfactory to the conquerors. In 1869 Mozaffer-Eddin Khan, emir of Bokhara, was defeated at Samarcand, and towards the close of the year humbly sought at St. Petersburg a treaty of peace and friendship. Khokan and Bokhara thus became in effect Russian provinces, if nominally still independent. In 1869-'70 the Russians were occupied in suppressing a rebellion of the Don Cossacks, which was fostered by emissaries of the Khan of Khiva. In November of the following year this chief surprised a Russian camp on the shores of the Caspian, taking a number of prisoners, and further hostilities seemed inevitable, threatening no little danger to the Russian establishment. Jacob Beg, the usurper of Cashgar, just over the border, invited to league with himself against the Russians the Emir of Bokhara, who accepted, and the Khan of Khokan, who declined, and was making overtures to the willing Khan of Khiva, when the latter's disposition was suddenly changed by the intrigues of Gen. Kaufmann, the Governor of Russian Turcomania, in favor of already existing disaffection among the Khan's own subjects. In April last he was so far convinced of the Russian superiority in the game, that he liberated all the Russian prisoners, and assented to a treaty of commerce, allowing free trade to Russian merchants throughout his khanate, and guarantee-

ing protection to caravans. By this act he opens to the Russians the entire course of the Amu or Oxus River, and permits direct communication between Orenburg and Afghanistan.

The Russians have at several points, during the past decade, encroached upon the great central area known as Chinese Tartary. On the 22d of July, 1871, they occupied the district of Kouldja, in Soongaria—a fertile oasis, surrounded by mountains (except on the west), and abounding in living waters, with a desert only in the centre, just touching the River Ili, which traverses the district. The products of the soil are rice, millet, grapes, apples, apricots, melons, etc.; the timber is fine and varied, and there are sufficient coal deposits. The Chinese occupied this valley in 1757, exterminating the inhabitants and introducing a motley colony, which revolted in 1825 and again in 1865, this last time securing their independence. The Tarantches (Turks), who number about two-fifths of the total population (102,000), were in 1867 accepted as rulers. To these the Russians now succeed. Coastwise, similar advances have been made and are still making. Saghalien, of which only the northern end was yielded to the Russians by the treaty of 1867, has now been entirely occupied and fortified; and the Japanese, so far from resisting, have struck up a peculiar intimacy with its powerful neighbor, and formed an alliance, offensive and defensive, that may yet produce grave complications in eastern waters. On the mainland, Russian Mantchooria, extending southward from the inhospitable and humid banks of the Amoor, must be considered to have a fluctuating and unsettled border, which Coreans and Chinese immigrants are crossing in great numbers. Of its harbors, Vladivostok is the best, and likely to outstrip in importance the northern port Nicolaievsk. The cable connecting Japan and Siberia lands at the former place. The water which went on our maps under the name of the channel of Tartary, has, since its acquisition by Russia, in the treaty with China concluded by Gen. Ignatieff Nov. 2, 1860, been denominated the Gulf of Peter the Great. It is really a succession of six great gulfs along a coast a thousand miles or more in extent, and affording twenty excellent harbors, capable of receiving

ships of the first-class in all weathers and almost in all seasons. The first Russian settlements in this region date from 1864. Rains are very frequent and the air full of moisture, the effect on vegetation being equivalent to six degrees difference in latitude northward. But little snow falls about the Gulf, and not all the ports are frozen in winter. Rainy and foggy days average 160 out of 365.

—From *Ausland* we quote the following picture of Samarcand, under the Russian régime :

"At Samarcand, the Russian soldiers naturally live in the citadel, but the General in the city, under the protection of the fortress, it is true, and near enough to take refuge in it in an instant. Samarcand is peaceful, for its inhabitants know that the citadel has been so fortified as to defy all the efforts of the Bokharian army. The fort, the Emir's palace, the Bey's palace, have almost wholly lost their oriental aspect. The Emir's residence has been converted into a hospital and a quartermaster's depot, and several officers are established in the Bey's dwelling. One of the mosques has become an orthodox Greek church. . . . What is (or was) most wanting in this famous city is merchants, in the European sense of the word. There were many who bore this name, but they sold only trifles—toilet articles, children's toys, women's goods. Nothing could be had of them that was needed for daily subsistence. After long waiting, the things desired made their appearance, but were either not usable or extravagantly dear, and sometimes both. At last a kind of restaurant was started, and there are now two bakers—a German and a Tartar. Later still arrived a conjurer ; then, two or three months afterwards, an Italian with a hurdy-gurdy and a monkey."

—A. P. Fedchenko, a Russian traveler, made last summer an important journey in Central Asia, and letters from him were published in the *Turkestanskaia Vidomoski* (founded 1870), at Tashkend. We append the *Academy's* abstract of the fuller narrative compiled for Petermann's *Mittheilungen* :

"Fedchenko entered the diminished Khanate of Khokan from Kojend, in the Russian province of Turkestan, and at an audience granted by the Khan at the capital city he obtained a written permission to travel in the Khanate. From the city of Khokan the traveler first went southward by Ispara, on the way which leads through the mountains to the principality of Karategin ; but the passes in this direction were closed to the Khokandians through a rebellion of the Kirghiz. Fedchenko describes the head of the Ispara valley as an extensive circus, on the southern side of which eight

peaks rise to a height of from 18,000 to 19,000 feet; between each of these a great glacier with side moraines sinks into the valley, descending to a level of about 10,000 feet above the sea. The pass to Karategin is over one of these glaciers. From this the route lay across the high spurs of the mountains which bound the Khanate, south-eastward to where a side valley of the Syr Daria, that of the Kurshab, a small tributary, leads up to the most important pass of the whole region, the Terek-Dawan, on the highway to Cashgar and Eastern Turkestan. The Terek pass is scattered over with great stones to such an extent that it can only be used for traffic in winter, when the snow has filled up the spaces between these. In summer the caravans take a more circuitous route by a side pass. The summit of the Terek, looking down towards Cashgar, appears to have been the extreme limit of the journey."

AFRICA.—The traveler Haverland tells the story that, during the Crimean war, a large number of Boers of the Transvaal fancied they were undertaking a slight march when they set out for the north in the hope of arriving in time to help the Russians deliver the Holy land. They did not desist till they had lost all their animals from fatigue and the attacks of the tsetse fly. The northward longing still affects the Boers, who are little more than nomads. About 100 families have recently accepted an invitation of the Portuguese government to found a colony on the banks of the Zambesi. The total value of the diamonds discovered in the valley of the Vaal up to the end of 1870, is put at \$1,100,000.

—In a letter to his brother John, a resident of Listowell, Ontario, Dr. Livingstone gives some particulars which we have not observed in his other letters or in Stanley's. Thus he says:

"Lake Bangweolo, at the lowest estimate, is 150 miles long, and I tried to cross it and measure its breadth exactly. The first stage was to an inhabited island, twenty-four miles. The second stage could be seen from its highest point, or rather the tops of the trees upon it, evidently lifted up by mirage. The third stage, the mainland, was said to be as far beyond; but my canoe men had stolen the canoe, and they got a hint that the real owners were in pursuit, and got into a flurry to return home. Oh that they would! But I had only my coverlet left to hire another craft, and the lake being four hundred feet above the sea, it was very cold; so I gave in and went back, but I believe the breadth to be between sixty and seventy miles."



Mr. Stanley, who has been handsomely fêted in England, intends publishing a narrative of his African adventures, which will make, it is said, an octavo volume of 500 pages, illustrated with maps and sketches. Scribner, Armstrong & Co., of this city, will be the American publishers of the work.

*Cartography.*—The results of elaborate investigations of the geography of Southern Arabia, made during a long residence in the neighborhood of Aden, by Freiherr von Maltzan, are published in the *Mittheilungen*. Von Maltzan obtained his knowledge for the most part by a regular system of examination of every traveler arriving by any of the routes which centre in Aden; and by comparing the accounts thus received with the descriptions given in the manuscript work of the Arabian geographer "El Hamdâni," a copy of which he was fortunate enough to find in Aden. In this way he has been able to map out a region of the country stretching north and eastward almost equal in extent to Bavaria. When studied along with the journeys of von Wrede, Munzinger, and Miles, the map forms a most valuable addition to geography, by filling up a space which hitherto was a perfect blank. (*Academy*, May 15.) The last census gives Aden a population of 35,000 inhabitants.

—Important improvements in the map of Turkey are promised, in consequence of a railroad to be opened from Belgrade to Salonica *via* Uskup; from the travels of a Mr. Kanitz in Bulgaria; and from the continuation to the Sea of Marmora of the Russian measurement of the meridian of Lapland, which last will afford the basis for a trigonometrical survey of Eastern Roumelia (ancient Thrace).

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In the average height of mountain ranges Switzerland does not compare with Colorado, or, for that matter, with any Western territory. The mean height of the Alps is from 8,000 to 9,000 feet above the sea. The mean height of the Rocky Mountains is from 10,000 to 12,000 feet. This is the mean height of the immense continental sweep of the Cordillera de la Sierra Madre. It is probable that the average height in Colorado, which is the table-land of the continent, will approach very nearly to 12,000 feet.

*CORPORAL PUNISHMENT AS A MEANS OF  
SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.*

## v.

BY COMMON consent and immemorial custom, the right to use the rod as a means of producing individual reformation or establishing general obedience, is vested in the teacher. In this respect, as stated in a former paper, he is understood to be endowed with the same power over the pupils in school as that which the law recognizes in their parents out of school. When all other means of reformation have failed, it is meet, right, and the teacher's bounden duty to judiciously test "the virtues of the rod," no matter how disagreeable the task may be. Corporal punishment undoubtedly should be the last resort, but when used it should be continued (or resumed at short intervals) until it produces the desired result. The infliction of corporal punishment is more effectual in most instances and, considering the future prospects of the refractory, it is far more humane than temporary suspension or total expulsion from school. We do not advocate frequent corrections of this sort: on the contrary, we believe that, as a rule, those children do best who are seldom subjected to blows. We recommend "the use, but not the abuse of the rod." When not being used, this instrument should not be exposed to view. The teacher should not carry it with him "on his rounds" through the school. He should remember that its constant appearance, with frequent, slight, and random application will familiarize the pupils with its terrors, and cause the more evil-disposed to regard it with contempt. Nothing could be so pernicious as the promiscuous use of the rod. This instrument should not be regarded as a universal remedy to be applied for all transgressions—small and large. A child should not be corrected with two or three lashes for a fault, and the same repeated on every repetition of a like offence. The rod should be specially reserved for the greater and more heinous offences. Its judicious use requires a nice discrimination and a careful study of the delinquent's temper—implying considerable skill, caution and judgment in the

teacher, as well as a correct estimate of the offender's character and fault. Ill-ordered or ill-deserved correction does more harm than good, as it tends to make the refractory more perverse and intractable. Let the pupil get the benefit of any doubt that may arise during an investigation as to his guilt. "Better to pardon ninety and nine offenders, than to punish one innocent child." If we err at all, let us be sure to err on the side of mercy. Moreover, we must always remember that if punishment fails to do good it is sure to do harm. If it be not made to reach the mind and bend the will, it only hardens and injures the offender. It would be far better never to attempt to inflict corporal punishment than that it should fail in design—prove ineffectual or soon need repetition. All punishments are for amendment or example—for reformation of the offender or the detention of others from committing like offences. Sometimes these two motives are united, and then the punishment is doubly just and proper. In either case, legitimate authority having praiseworthy objects in view inflicts legitimate punishment to accomplish legitimate ends. This is done in love, and because the little sufferer is beloved. Were it otherwise the teacher would be a tyrant and the pupil a martyr. Punishments should be few and far between, for as Seneca well observes, "it is as discreditable for a teacher to have too many of them as it is for a prince to have too many executions, or a physician to have too many funerals." "The pain of the rod," (says Locke,) "on the first occasion that requires it—continued and increased till it has thoroughly prevailed—should first bend the mind and settle the teacher's (or parent's) authority; and then gravity, mixed with kindness, should keep it for ever after." If the teacher can only succeed in thoroughly establishing his authority at school in the first instance, his efforts as an educator are almost sure of being successful. Good discipline is essential to good teaching, and may be said to form the fundamental basis of education.

The major offences—generally known as disobedience, perverseness of disposition, obstinacy, rebellion, and wilful neglect, are those which need repression by the use of the rod. Kindness and forbearance on the part of the teacher

would be regarded as weakness by pupils guilty of these faults. Force is the only influence they will respect—at least at the outset. For this reason such offenders must be thoroughly mastered by whipping, prolonged until the chastisement reaches the mind, bends the will, and produces the desired effect by exciting shame, sorrow and repentance; the great object of all punishment. Attendance at school implies submission to authority, and authority requires sanctions. The teacher could have no right to command unless he also had the right to enforce obedience. The penalties attached to wilful transgressions administered equally and regularly—and without passion, caprice, hesitation or mitigation—lead pupils to feel that pain and shame are sure to overtake the evil doer. Discipline will be easy and effective when the pupils have once made up their minds that the teacher's commands *must* be obeyed. We may here remark, that when children are punished, the degree of correction should not be measured altogether by the magnitude of their offence, but rather by the amount of opposition indicated by the offence towards the rules of the school and authority of the teacher—by the root whence it sprang and the habit it tends to establish. If possible, let things be so ordered that the pupil will consider the shame of being whipped a greater punishment than the pain caused by the rod. Shame of giving offence and of the disgrace attending it are wholesome restraints on juvenile conduct. Without exhibiting a will of his own and an unalterable tenacity of purpose, a teacher will seldom be able to win the esteem of his pupils; and unless he gains their esteem he can never enjoy their love. Without their love or affectionate regard he cannot reckon on their prompt or implicit obedience, except as the result of fear or force. . . A teacher on taking charge of a school, may not be able to win the love (and thus secure the obedience) of all his pupils for many weeks or perhaps months. It would be very foolish of him in such a case, to ignore the use of the rod, and thus allow those desirous of being troublesome to run riot, and set a pernicious example to the remainder while he is experimenting on the virtues of moral suasion. On the contrary, let him first establish his authority by force—if necessary—and then rely on “softer means” if so

disposed. Otherwise, things would be sure to go on from bad to worse; "the sickly sheep would infect the flock," and the trustees have to call in a new physician and pay the old one off. A ruler abolishing fines, prisons, and capital punishment would soon have no country to rule, no servants to obey him, no friends to love him—all would be confusion, riot and bloodshed. So of a teacher who, on finding that he had no immediate prospect of successfully establishing his authority by reason and love, would decline or delay to do so by force. Order being once established, and thorough obedience secured, he will have to resort to the rod but seldom. On taking charge of a school, if he find that the pupils disrespect the immortal principles of law and order and abuse their freedom, we would advise him to act promptly, and do as governments do in like cases—"suspend the constitution (so to speak) and rule by martial law." Habits of order, attention, and implicit obedience promulgated and once adopted by the school, his appeals to higher motives than fear or force will seldom fail. "He can then rule by the power of reciprocal affection, and rely for success on the finer feelings of human nature." These will carry conviction to the heart through the medium of the conscience. But it is evident he must establish his authority by force—if necessary—long before he could justly be expected to exact or receive obedience as the result of affection.

Teachers should be particularly careful not to threaten their pupils. If a boy be innocent no one has a right to threaten him: if guilty, justice or good example demand his punishment. The ruler who continually threatens his subjects not only alienates their affections, but is sure of being despised and hated—they will detest his prison, scoff at his words, and ultimately deprive him of all power, if not of his head. The man who strikes when he has just cause—and without the notice of a threat—is the person whom people obey, honor, and respect. The dog that barks the most and the loudest, is not the soonest dog to bite. Children learn as if by instinct that the loudest talker is usually the weakest and smallest actor, and that the decision and firmness of a man of many words are confined to his tongue. This may induce them to dislike his person, to despise his

teachings, and to disobey his commands, and for these reasons he should never make use of threats.

As a rule, corporal punishment should be inflicted on the hands with a cane of moderate thickness. For many reasons, the head and certain other parts of the body should be exempt from blows. But it may be asked—"What is to be done should the delinquent resist the teacher or decline to receive his punishment on the hands?" There are two solutions for such a difficulty. According to the first the refractory pupil must be punished on the back or legs until he consents to apologize, in writing, for resisting the teacher, and expresses his willingness to accept his chastisement in the usual way: after which, the teacher may allow him a respite to write the apology, and then inflict the original punishment on his hands as designed at the commencement. Having honorably submitted to his punishment, the teacher may again restore him to favor. Such an example will have a powerful effect on the school, and, if judiciously and effectually performed, will never need repetition. The second solution though apparently more humane is far more terrible, taking the future prospects of the pupil into consideration. According to it, the refractory pupil must be temporarily suspended or totally expelled from the school. The latter plan is more suitable than the former for pupils of an adult age. Corporal punishment should be inflicted in the presence of the whole school, and in as solemn a manner as possible; so that it may not only reform the offender, but deter others from committing similar offences. Inflicted privately, its deterring influence is lost to the school, whilst the pain and disgrace to the sufferer remain unaltered. Besides, its public infliction renders misrepresentation of the teacher impossible, and its severity cannot be exaggerated to parents nor ridiculed to companions. Dozens of anxious eyes will witness its application, so that nothing can be mis-stated or erroneously reported. If administered in private, either or all of these things might happen.

It frequently happens that boys of an obstinate disposition and a certain degree of fortitude, will submit to "almost any amount of continuous punishment" in presence of their companions without indicating the least sense of pain,

sorrow or regret—thinking doubtless that it is more manly to bear correction well than never to have deserved it. The chastisement is continued probably until the sufferer gets “black in the face,” but his stubborn will remains unbent, and at last the teacher, “for the sake of humanity,” sends “the unconquered hero” to his seat, where he is received doubtless with mingled though suppressed feelings of sympathy and admiration. The punishment—though ultra severe—has failed in its object. It has done much harm but no good. It has hardened the offender and, through him, the whole school. The result of “the encounter” has made each pupil feel that if able to bear a similar punishment without flinching, he also might become a “martyr” and not only defy the teacher but force him to “cry quits,” as boys say. We may be asked, “What is to be done in such a case?” We reply that the refractory pupil must be conquered at all hazards or forthwith expelled. Punishment administered in private would be more effectual than public correction in reducing the will of such an offender. But for reasons before mentioned we would not recommend such a course. By comparing the result of our own experience with such light as we have been able to obtain in the writings of other educators, we are induced to believe that corporal punishment not continuous but inflicted at intervals will succeed in conquering the obstinate will of such an offender so as to ensure his penitent submission. When the teacher finds that he has to deal with such an extraordinary case, let him, after pointing out the gravity of the offence, inflict punishment sufficient to reduce the will of an ordinary offender. Let him, then, admonish the boy, alluding to the reprehensible nature of his offence, the disgrace attending its punishment, the duties of obedience, and the manliness of character which impels brave men not only to confess a fault but to conquer even their own follies. At the same time let the offender be given to understand that part of his punishment has been suspended to allow him an opportunity for reflection, and that it will be inflicted by instalments at certain short intervals until he thinks proper not only to apologize for his offence but also to express his sorrow and sincere regret at its occurrence, and his earnest desire to do better in future.



After being thus admonished, another instalment of the punishment, equal to, if not greater than the first, must be administered. The teacher may then reason with him again, and allow him sometime for reflection. When the prescribed time has expired, if still refractory, the punishment must be resumed—another instalment equal to, if not greater than the last, being inflicted, and so on, the intervals for punishment and reflection succeeding each other alternately until the offender, conscious of his fault, becomes penitent, and, melting in true sorrow at his guilt, requests permission to express his regret for the past, as well as his desire to do better for the future. This apology should be presented to the teacher, duly signed, accompanied by a request that he may be pleased to pardon and restore the penitent to favor. The teacher should then write the nature of the offence and punishment on the back of this paper, and affixing the date, file it for future reference. Such a punishment, coolly, calmly, judiciously, and effectually administered will never need repetition. It will have a salutary and an enduring influence on the whole school. If the amount of punishment be too little, it is sure to be ineffectual, and will therefore do more harm than good; and to prevent punishment being too much it should instantly terminate when by the pupil's submission it becomes apparent that the correction has reached his mind. "Whenever children are punished," (says Locke), "it should be done without passion, soberly yet effectually, laying on the blows, and smart, not furiously and all at once, but slowly, with reasoning between, and observation how it wrought, stopping when it has made them pliant, penitent, and yielding."

Quiet, cool, deliberate, long-forbearing justice is a fundamental element of success in school government. When about to inflict corporal punishment, the teacher should remember that one thoughtless word, one hasty or unjust blow, may nullify the laborious inculcations of many days. He should not be in a hurry—he should be calm, self-possessed and free from anger, while at the same time exhibiting a just sense of the reprehensible nature of the offence. If he be not free from anger let him defer the punishment—nothing should induce him to undertake its infliction.

Indeed it will always be wise to allow some time to elapse—a few hours at least, a day or two at most—from the investigation of an offence and delivery of judgment until the infliction of punishment. The offender, in the interval, will have time to reflect on the nature of his "crime" and the justice of his sentence, and may perhaps become truly penitent. Thoroughly understanding the teacher's character, and being instructed by experience that silence and delay do not mean exemption, he will feel assured that nothing will arrest the course of justice except due contrition and reformation—a timely amendment and the exhibition of a heartfelt repentance.

On a certain occasion the great teacher Plato was about to strike one of his slaves, but "while his hand was in the air," he suddenly checked himself, still retaining it in its elevated and menacing position. The poor slave after some hesitation ran away, but his master stood "fixed to the spot," as if he were a statue. An intimate friend having observed this transaction, asked the philosopher what he meant by such singular conduct? "I am now," (said he,) "chastising an angry man." He had postponed his slave's punishment, and was punishing himself for giving way to anger. Seneca relates that on another occasion this same slave committed some offence for which Plato thought it advisable to administer corporal punishment: but being under the influence of anger, he addressed his friend Speusippus, who happened to be near, saying—"Do thou chastise that fellow, I am angry and might go farther than becomes me." This is the spirit we would commend. The modern teacher, like his Grecian predecessor, *should never inflict punishment while under the influence of anger*. It is true, he cannot, like Plato, delegate his power to another; but he can stop his uplifted hand and allow the offender time to repent and his own anger time to evaporate.

The divine Seneca, in his "Cautions against Anger," advances many useful hints concerning the education of children. Ere concluding this article, we will take the liberty of transcribing a few of them, which may probably be interesting and useful to parents and teachers. The noble Roman affirms that—"A careful education is a great matter in

enabling us to conquer our evil propensities; for our minds are easily formed in youth, but bad habits once acquired are difficult to cure. Children should be trained to avoid provocations and the beginnings of anger. Nothing breeds anger more than a soft effeminate education. The choice of a healthy nurse and a good-natured tutor goes a great way in eliminating its germs from the system, for the sweetness of the blood and the manners will pass into the child. The teacher's favorite or mother's darling seldom comes to good. Flattery and fortune nourish touchiness, and as he grows up he becomes a choleric coxcomb. It is a very nice point to check the seeds of anger in a child so as not to take off his edge or quench his spirits. In this great care must be taken that he be neither too much emboldened by license nor too much depressed by severity. Commendations give him confidence and courage; but if dispensed to excess, they seldom fail to promote a spirit of insolence or intolerance." Parents, friends, or teachers should "never put the child to the necessity of begging anything basely, and if he do so let him go without it"—he is unworthy to receive it. "Give him nothing that he cries for till the dogged fit is over. If convenient, let him have it when he has regained his equanimity."

The child will thus learn that nothing is to be gained by peevishness, and as a necessary consequence will day by day become less waspish, less quarrelsome, and more obedient. In all his exercises let him be led to understand that it is not generous or just to injure his competitors, or even to wish them harm, but that it is praiseworthy to overcome or excel them without wishing to depress them. Finally, let him be taught to observe the Saviour's Golden Rule, so that he may always do unto others as he would have others do unto him.

G. V. LE VAUX.

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ONE singular feature of the Thousand Islands is the luxuriant growth of trees upon what seems to be almost bare rocks. Evergreens of a foot in diameter standing upon what seems an absolutely soilless rock are often seen. The roots of these trees follow down, through and out along the crevices, and thus gain nourishment as well as support for the tree.

*WHY NOT?*

**P**UBLIC sentiment is moving rapidly in the direction of compulsory education. During the last year this question has been discussed in the legislatures of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Michigan, and other States. It is the most important school question of modern times. It is the leading question which divides the friends of education in France and England. In this great conflict, the older American States should take the lead. Our plans should embrace more than our boundaries. The interests of all the American States are virtually one. Like that of Switzerland, our motto should be, "One for all, all for one." The unification of Germany and of Italy—the most important of the recent political events in Europe—are largely the results of public instruction. Our people also, diverse in race and character, need now to be fused into one. More than anything else will universal education thus fraternize all. The extension of the franchise in our country demands a corresponding expansion of the school. To give the ballot to the ignorant would be suicidal to the nation. In the interest of public morality and order, the security of life and property, as well as for the safety and perpetuity of our free institutions, every agency should be employed to secure universal education.

Obligatory attendance is a corollary from the compulsory school tax. The power that claims public money for the purpose of educating and elevating all classes may justly provide that such public expenditure shall not fail of its appropriate end through the vice, intemperance, or perverseness of parents. The State has the same right to compel the ignorant to learn, that it has to compel the penurious to pay for that learning. If education is of universal interest, it must be universal in its diffusion. Many taxpayers have said to me, "If you compel us who have no children to support schools for the good of the State, you must effectively provide that the children of the State fail not to share the advantages thus provided. While we, will-

ing or unwilling, must support the schools, the children, by constraint if not from choice, should attend school."

And why not? The following are all the objections I have heard:

"Such a law would create a new crime." I reply, it ought to. To bring up children in ignorance *is* a crime, and should be treated as such. As the most prolific source of criminality, it should be under the ban of legal condemnation, and the restraint of legal punishments. All modern civilization and legislation have made new crimes. Barbarism recognizes but few. To employ children in factories who are under ten years of age, or who have not attended school, or to employ minors under eighteen years of age more than twelve hours a day, is each a "new crime" in the New England States.

"It interferes with the liberty of parents." I reply again, it ought to, when they are incapacitated by vice or other causes for the performance of essential duties as parents. Many other laws limit personal liberty. The requisition to serve on juries, or to aid the Sheriff in arresting criminals, or the exactions of military service in the hour of the country's need,—these and many other laws do this. If the law may prohibit the owner from practicing cruelty upon his horse or ox, it may restrain the parent from dwarfing the mind and debasing the character of his child. If the State may imprison and punish juvenile criminals, it may remove the causes of their crime and its consequences of loss, injury and shame. The child has rights which not even a parent may violate. He may not rob his child of the sacred right of a good education. The law would justly punish a parent for starving his child, and more mischief is done by starving the mind than by famishing the body. The right of a parent to his children is founded on his ability and disposition to supply their wants of body and mind. When a parent is disqualified by intemperance, cruelty, or insanity, society justly assumes the control of the children. In ancient Greece, the law gave almost unlimited authority to the father over his offspring. The same is true in some semi-barbarous nations now. In all Christian lands, the rights of the parent are held to imply certain correlative duties, and

the duty to educate is as positive as to feed and clothe. Neglected children, when not orphans in fact, are virtually such, their parents ignoring their duties, and thus forfeiting their rights as parents. The State should protect the helpless, and especially these, its defenceless wards, who otherwise will be vicious as well as weak.

"It arrogates new power for the government." So do all quarantine and hygienic regulations and laws for the abatement of nuisances. Now, ignorance is as noxious as the most offensive nuisance, and more destructive than bodily contagions. Self-protection is a fundamental law of society.

"It is un-American and ill-adapted to our free institutions." To put the question in the most offensive form, it may be asked, "Would you have a policeman drag your children to school?" I answer, "Yes, if it will prevent his dragging them to jail a few years hence." But this law in our land would involve no "dragging" and no police espionage, or inquisitorial searches. With the annual enumeration and the school registers in hand, and the aid of the teachers and others most conversant with each district, school-officers could easily learn who are the absentees.

There is no country in the world more jealous of liberty and more averse to any form of usurpation than our sister republic of Switzerland. It rejoices in being the land of freedom. It glories in free schools, free speech, free press, free trade, free roads, free bridges; for its roads, though the best in Europe, are without toll, and even the most costly suspension bridges are free. It has freedom in religion and freedom in traveling, no passports being required and no examination of luggage; no standing army, and no *gendarmes* brandishing the threatening hand of power, as everywhere else in Europe. And yet this free people in all their twenty-two cantons, except four of the smallest, choose for themselves the system of compulsory attendance.

In our own country there is every assurance of kindness and conciliation in the execution of the law. The plan is truly democratic, for its entire management is for the people, and by the people, through school-officers chosen by them and responsible to them. Connecticut, last year, passed a law enforcing attendance at school of all children dis-

charged from factory or other work for that purpose, with a penalty of five dollars a week for every week of non-attendance, not exceeding thirteen weeks in each year. The people plainly approve that law, stringent as are its provisions. It has already accomplished great good, and brought into the schools many children who otherwise would be absentees. There have been no penalties, no prosecutions, no opposition even. The law itself has been a moral force. It is itself an effective advocate of education to the very class who need it most. Were the same law made universal in its application, I anticipate no infliction of penalties, no legal processes whatever.

It is largely through immigration that the number of ignorant, vagrant, and criminal youth has recently multiplied to an extent truly alarming in some of our cities. Their depravity is sometimes defiant, and their resistance to moral suasion is obstinate. When personal effort, and persuasion, and organized benevolence have utterly failed, let the law take them in hand, first to the public school, and if there incorrigible, then to the reform school. Those who need education most and prize it least, are fit subjects for coercion, when all persuasives are in vain. The great influx of this foreign element has so far changed the condition of society as to require new legislation to meet the new exigency. The logic of events demands the recognition of compulsion, for we have imported parents so imbruted as to compel their young children to work for their grog, and even to beg and steal in the streets when they should be in school.

"Compulsory education is monarchical in its origin and history." Common as is this impression, it is erroneous. Massachusetts and Connecticut may justly claim to be the first States in the world to establish the principle of compulsory education. On this point their earliest laws were most rigid. They need but slight modification to adapt them to the changed circumstances of the present. Before the peace of Westphalia, before Prussia existed as a kingdom, and while Frederick William was only "elector of Brandenburg," Massachusetts and Connecticut adopted coercive education. The Connecticut code of 1650 comprised the most stringent provisions for compulsory education.



The select-men were required to see that so much "*barbarism*" was not permitted in any family "as that their children should not be able perfectly to read the English tongue . . . upon penalty of *twenty shillings* for each neglect therein." "If after the said fines paid or levied, the said officers shall still find a continuance of the former negligence, every such parent may be summoned to the next court of magistrates, who are to proceed as they find cause, either to a greater fine, or may take such children from such parents, and place them for years, boys till they come to the age of one-and-twenty, and girls till they come to the age of eighteen years, with such others who shall better educate and govern them, both for the public conveniency and for the particular good of the said children."

In our early history, public opinion so heartily indorsed the principle of compulsory attendance, or rather, so thoroughly accepted the necessity of universal education and so generally desired, and secured, it for children and wards, that attendance lost its involuntary character. No doubt the law itself originally contributed to diffuse and deepen this sentiment. If at first it was the cause, it became at length only the expression of public opinion. The requirement of this law that "the *barbarism*" of ignorance should not be tolerated in any family, helped to make it disgraceful to keep even an apprentice from school. To bring up a child or ward in ignorance was shameful and *barbarous* in the eyes of our fathers. This is still the sentiment of the genuine "Yankee." High appreciation of education is one of the most precious traditions of New England. To it we owe our growth, prosperity and liberty. But now we are a polyglot people. Immigrants from every nation of Europe abound, and some have come from Asia and the islands of the sea. The Germans and the Jews, the Hollanders, Scotch, Sweeds and Swiss, almost without exception, and most of the Irish, favor universal education. But there have come among us many, ignorant themselves, and caring not if their children grow up like them. They are so ignorant as to be insensible to the evils of illiteracy. Yet, on the other hand, there is a growing number of immigrants, who, realizing how they have suffered all their lives from ignorance, desire a good education for their children.

The most plausible objection to such a law is that it would sometimes bring hardship upon poor parents. But our existing law provides for extreme cases, and authorizes the school-officers to make such exceptions as necessity may require. No public officers will show more sympathy for the poor than they. In their hands the administration of the law will be kind and paternal. The right to enforce will be used mainly as an argument to persuade—an authoritative appeal to good sense and parental pride. If any parents are too poor to send their children to school, individual charities or town benefactions cannot be better expended than for their relief. It is a short-sighted policy to permit indigence to perpetuate ignorance. The poor should not be left to transmit their poverty, by robbing their children of the sacred rights of education. If the schooling of all should involve some hardships, evils more and greater far would follow from ignorance. Better stint the stomach for three months a year, than famish the mind for life. There need be, and in this land of plenty, there would be no starvation to the body, while that education is insured which will lessen the amount of hardship and poverty a thousand-fold.

It has been objected that the school system has taken so deep a root in the sympathies and social habits of the German people that attendance would be just as large without the law as it is now. It may be so. But so far from being an objection, this fact is strong proof of the efficiency of that law which has itself helped to create so healthful a public sentiment. Were the law to be abrogated to-morrow the individual and general interest in public education would remain. The same might have been said of Connecticut for more than one hundred and seventy years after the adoption of compulsory education. During all that period, a native of this State, of mature age, unable to read the English language, would have been looked upon as a prodigy. Still, in Connecticut, as well as in Germany, it was the law itself which greatly aided in awakening public interest, and in fixing the habits, associations and traditions of the people.

It has been said that, "In some countries, without any

coercive law, the attendance is as good as in Prussia or Saxony with such a law." This is simply a mistake. Holland has been cited as an illustration of this statement. But while the Dutch show commendable zeal for public schools, the attendance is not relatively so large as in Prussia, and illiteracy is by no means so rare as in Germany. But Holland *has*, indirectly, a system of compulsory attendance. It denies certain immunities and privileges and honors to the uneducated. The parents of children who are not instructed up to the required standard cannot receive relief from certain charitable institutions. The ban of legal condemnation falls upon them as truly, though not so effectively, as in Prussia.

In Rotterdam, Hague, Amsterdam, and elsewhere in Holland, I was assured that the working classes regard the school law as practically compulsory. No one is permitted to teach even a private school, who has not been duly "examined and approved," and the public supervision includes private as well as public schools.

The tendency throughout all Europe is more than ever toward the recognition of the right and duty of the State to educate its entire population. Public sentiment, educated by recent events, now connects ignorance with crime, and poverty with individual and national weakness, as cause and effect. Sadowa taught Austria, and indeed all Europe, a salutary lesson. "Defeated in war, let it be our policy to excel in the arts of peace," became the national idea under the inspiration of Count Beust. There was no wasting of zeal and strength in the mad cry of revenge, as now in prostrate France. Austria was not unwilling to learn from an enemy, and adopted the educational system of her conqueror. Her school system was re-organized and vitalized, and the principle of compulsory attendance made prominent. Education is obligatory in Denmark, Norway and Sweden, and also in Switzerland, except in four small cantons of Geneva, Schyws, Uri and Unterwalden. The total population of these four cantons is less than one-seventeenth that of the whole nation. The new school law of Italy provides for both free schools and obligatory attendance, and includes the following important "Civil Service Reform:" "No one

can be appointed to any State, Provincial, or Communal office whatever, who cannot read and write."

More than thirty years ago, Guizot, in his Educational Report to the French Government, ably opposed obligatory education, but the recent experience of France has changed his views, and now he is its earnest advocate. That one of his advanced age, long ranked among the foremost men of France both as a scholar and statesman, cautious, yet positive in his convictions, a historian in his tastes and studies, and therefore conservative, should now stoutly advocate that compulsory system which he so successfully opposed when himself the Minister of Public Instruction, in 1833, is significant. The logic of events during the last forty years proves that the very system which he largely originated is unsuited to the wants of the nation and the age. M. Jules Simon, the Minister of Public Instruction, explained to me his plan for the reorganization of Primary Instruction, by making it both gratuitous and compulsory. The penalties were to be a maximum fine of one hundred francs, and *loss of suffrage for three years*. After the year 1880, no citizen was to become a voter who could not read and write. But his bill is likely to fail at Versailles. While Thiers proposed an increase of eighty millions in the budget for the army, he said nothing for education. Even under Napoleon, fifteen times more was spent for the army than for education, including Primary, Secondary and Superior. The provisions for Superior education were liberal, and absorbed nearly one-half of the whole appropriation, leaving the Primary schools most meager, both in quantity and quality. The Ultramontane party, now dominant, stoutly oppose both gratuitous and obligatory instruction, and little is likely to be done for the better education of the masses. The objection that obligatory instruction would challenge resistance as an act of usurpation, seems ludicrous in a land where military conscription and the most rigorous police surveillance are universal and unresisted. Gambetta as well as Guizot, and the liberal republicans, strongly advocate obligatory instruction. Even the Commune favored universal and compulsory education, as also do the majority of the Parisians still. The opposition comes from the clerical and conservative parties.

The new school law of England *permits* all local Boards to enforce attendance. Public sentiment throughout England is now changing rapidly in favor of making compulsory attendance national and universal, instead of permissive. As one of many illustrations of this change, Rev. Canon Kingsley, formerly favoring non-compulsion, now advocates the compulsory principle.

The motto of the National Educational League, of which George Dixon, M. P., is President, is, "Education must be UNIVERSAL, UNSECTARIAN, COMPULSORY." At the late General Conference of Nonconformists, held in Manchester, January, 1872, and attended by 1,885 delegates, there seemed to be great unanimity in favor of enforced attendance. This assembly was as remarkable in its character as its numbers. The argument of Mr. Jacob Bright, M. P., on this subject was received with great applause. He said that the best part of the Education Act, that which is worth all the rest put together, is the permission to compel attendance, which should be the absolute law throughout the entire kingdom.

The laboring classes are not opposed to such a law. They would welcome it. In England the working classes are asking for a *national compulsory* system of education. By invitation of A. J. Mundella, M. P., I attended the National Trades-Union Congress, held at Nottingham for the week beginning January 8th, 1872. That body seemed unanimous in favor of compulsory attendance. One of the leading members, an able and effective speaker, said that in large and crowded assemblies of workingmen he had often distinctly asked, "Do you agree with me that we want a national *compulsory* system of education?" and not a dissenting voice had he ever heard from the workingmen.—B. G. Northrop, in *Christian Union*.

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A CURIOUS discovery has been made at Pompeii, namely, a glass bottle still full of oil. The liquid is to be analyzed to ascertain its greater or less degree of preservation.

## SCHOOL BOOKS.

THE recent Convention of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, according to the *N.Y. Evening Post*, "was besieged, as usual, by the agents of school-book publishers with specimens of their wares. There is good, undoubtedly, in the multiplicity of books, and that school-books especially are indispensable there can be no question. But it may be very properly questioned whether new editions of school-books are not often a nuisance. In this matter of education, we are afraid, the Mammon of Unrighteousness sometimes has a finger, and that new books are often thrust into the hands of children, not because they are better than the old ones, but simply in the way of trade. A new geography, a new arithmetic, a new spelling-book, or a new reader is brought out, not so much that it is needed, or is more excellent than its predecessor, but that some publisher thinks that he can make, in the trade sense, a good thing of it.

He cannot, however, make a good thing of it without help. The help he wants is to be found in school committees and school principals. We do not aver it to be a fact, but we can conceive of its being possible that an expectant percentage may sometimes reveal faults in an old book and merit in a new one which would otherwise remain imperceptible. The essential difference may be quite hidden to ordinary eyes, and parents may be quite content that their children should learn all they can find in the old book rather than be put, once or twice a year, to the expense of a change. We presume that some people, and especially people of limited means, have grumbled that they are often compelled to buy new books no whit better than old ones, which their children are ordered to discard on the plea of improvement, and that they sometimes detect, or think they detect, a reason for the change in the difference between the trade price at which a teacher buys and the retail price at which he sells.

There are a great many people who look upon this constant change of school-books as an abuse which it is about time should be corrected. A child uses now a great many

more books during his school years than was necessary twenty-five years ago; and it is rare now that the younger children of a family can use as they once could, the books which their older brothers or sisters have done with. If there was any absolute gain to knowledge, or any added facilities in its acquisition, nobody probably would complain. As the only gain, however, seems to be to those who make and sell school-books, the question becomes serious. If teachers are not paid enough, and they often are not, let salaries be increased and less latitude allowed in the book business. It is even asserted that the "ring" system is not unknown in this matter of text-books, and it can do no harm to look into it. We commend the subject to the next convention of teachers, where there are always men and women able and candid enough to give it due consideration."

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#### *POWER OF COMPREHENSION.*

IT was said of Thoreau, we believe, that he could take up any given number of lead pencils without counting. A celebrated trapper once assured us that he could tell how many balls he had in his bullet-pouch by placing his hand on it, and without stopping to count them, and added: "I can tell the number of bullets instantly without counting, as you pronounce a word without spelling it." Southey was accustomed to take in the substance of a book in turning the leaves over continuously, glancing down the pages. Houdan the magician trained himself to quickness of perception when a boy by running past a show-window at full speed, and then trying to tell what was in it. We once met a man on a canal boat, who was amusing himself by going from passenger to passenger, and telling almost every one where he had seen them before, on such a train, in such a hotel, in such a street, giving date and place to people with whom he had never exchanged a word. This training of the faculties in particular directions is carried to a marvelous extreme by woodsmen, trappers, and men who guess



the weights of animals. Perhaps the most remarkable instances are the markers who leap from log to log at the mouth of a boom, standing on the floating log and translating instantly an old mark into a new one, remembering what equivalent to give for each of a hundred marks, and chopping it upon the log in the time that it floats its length. It is said that Thoreau knew the relative order of the flowering of all the plants in the Concord woods, and knew the note of every bird, and a thousand other out-of-the-way things besides.—*Hearth and Home.*

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*THE EMOTIONS.*

It is remarkable what analogy exists between the bodily phenomena and the emotions; heroism and daring pour life and vigor through the blood-vessels and muscles; the eyes sparkle, the breast expands, every limb prepares, as it were, for battle, man looks like a fiery steed. Terror and fear extinguish the fire of the eyes, the limbs feel heavy and powerless, the marrow of the bones seems congealed, the heart feels oppressed, a general sense of fainting paralyzes the organs. A great, bold, and exalted thought compels us to stand on tiptoe, to raise our heads, to dilate our nostrils, and to open widely our mouths. The feeling of infinitude, the unobstructed view of a far-reaching horizon, the sea, and similar scenes, compel us to extend our arms as if we would give ourselves up to the infinite. At the sight of mountains we want to reach upward to the skies; we feel like rushing onward with hurricanes and waves; a precipice hurls us into the yawning abyss; hatred manifests itself in the bodily life by a repelling power, whereas friendship desires to realize a oneness with the friend's body by every shake of the hand, every embrace, even as the souls form one; pride raises the body; pusillanimity lowers the head, the limbs become relaxed; a servile fear is shown by the crawling gait; the idea of pain distorts our features, whereas the thought of delight embellishes our whole form; anger has torn the most powerful bonds, and necessity has almost conquered impossibilities.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

September 20th, 1872.

**M**R. EDITOR—You will, no doubt, recollect that we had a discussion upon the formation of the Possessive Singular, in which we disagreed. A circumstance has since occurred which led me to examine the matter carefully:—

*Rule 1.*—The possessive case is formed by adding an apostrophe S to the nominative.

*Exception.*—S after the apostrophe is omitted when the word has the sound of S in its last two syllables, and the following noun begins with an S sound.—*Fowler.*

*Remark.*—The chief exceptions or irregularities, in the formation of the possessive singular are, I think, to be accounted mere poetic licenses, and seldom, if ever, to be used in prose.—*Brown.*

*Rule 2.*—When the possessive noun is singular and terminates with an S, another S is requisite after it, and the apostrophe must be placed between the two, as "Dickens's Works," "Harris's Wit."—*Day's Punctuation.*

The fact that we found cause to disagree is evident that there has been a difference of usage. But I am satisfied that the best writers in the language adhere to Day's rule.

I find, in searching through my library, the following cases, pro and con.

## PRO.

"Willis's Poems,"  
 "Willis's School,"  
 "Loomis's Astronomy,"  
 "James Otis's Letters,"  
 "General Gates's Command,"  
 "Mr. Williams's Oration,"  
 "Mr. Williams's School,"  
 "Governor Meigs's Promptness,"  
 "Harris's Hermes,"  
 "Phillips's Poems,"  
 "James's Edict,"  
 "The Lass's Beauty,"  
 "Harris's Entomology," *et al.*

## CON.

"Willis' Constitution,"  
 "Bullions' Latin Lexicon,"  
 "Loomis' Geometry,"  
 "Andrews' Latin Lexicon."

Yours truly,

O. R.

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

THE arrangement of Swinton's little book on the Analysis of Words<sup>(1)</sup> is convenient, the examples mostly well taken, and the exercises adapted to develop the powers of analysis and discrimination. There are indications throughout the work, however, that it was rapidly, if not hastily, prepared for the press. For instance, *navigate* is said, page 7, to be "with reference to Latin, a *derivative* word,"—a statement that seems to confound derivation with composition. One could possibly regard *gate* or *igate* as a suffix, to be sure; but he would have to own *nav* in that case as a prefix, and where would be the "primitive?" On page 14 the suffixes *ar* and *ard*—"the suffix *ar* or *ard*," S. writes it—are given as the same ending; for a truer view see *ard* in Worcester, or, better, in Webster; or in Gibbs' *Teutonic Etymology*, p. 76. On p. 17 we are informed that the suffixes *eer* and *ee* are different forms of *er*. Earle, *Philology of the English Tongue*, p. 289, says that *ee* is from the French passive participle. Mr. S. says that *er* and *ee* both mean *one who*, without hinting that the one is active and the other passive. Perhaps it would be allowable to define *ee* by *one whom*. The ending *er* in *greater* is said, p. 18, to mean literally *ere* or *before*. The termination *est* of the superlative should then mean *erst* or *first*, it would seem. And what then do the formatives *ior*, *ius* signify in Latin, or what becomes of the original *s* of which Dr. Morris speaks?—*English Accidence*, p. 106; also Haldeman, *Affixes*, p. 146. Page 21 furnishes this: "'Godly' was formerly written *godlic*, that is *goodlike*." If by this Mr. S. means to have us understand that *godly* is etymologically identical with *goodly*, or that GOD means simply *The Good*, then we demur and refer him to Dr. Mahn in *Webster's Dictionary* or to Wedgwood, under the word *God*. The scholar is asked, p. 33, to say "*why* the final *e* of *judge* is dropped before the suffix *ment*?" The "ans." does not

(1) WORD-ANALYSIS, a Graded Class-book of English Derivative Words, with Practical Exercises in Spelling, Analyzing, Defining, Synonyms, and the Use of Words. By William Swinton, A.M., Professor in the University of California, author of "Rambles among Words," etc. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., 1872.

tell, though it refers us to an "exception" to a "rule." We presume almost any bright boy could say "why" it should *not* be dropped. This "why" occurs frequently throughout the book, in cases where only a fact or rule can be given, and not a reason. The derivation of *King*, p. 35, as he who *kens* and therefore *can*, is a very plausible, as well as familiar one. Carlyle makes much of it; Richardson adopts it; but Worcester, Webster, Morris and Wedgwood do not. The inference from *ken* to *can*, and from both to the proper *kingly* attributes, is a neat as well as an easy one; but has, perhaps, no historical ground to go upon. It is like some sermons one hears, entirely unobjectionable in point of doctrine and morals, but innocent of all connection with the text. *Rack* is made to depend on *reck* in this way, p. 46: "To *reck* is to care, and what gives care strains," *i. e.*, *racks*. This is singular etymologizing. In the first place, as to the phonetics of the derivation, the open *a* of *rack* is made to come by corruption of the close *e* of *reck*! Next, as to the sequence of ideas, the physical meaning, *strain* or *stretch*, is made secondary to the mental notion of *caring*; as palpable an inversion as one of Alexander Smith's similes. And thirdly, inasmuch as these two meanings are carefully discriminated by different spellings as far back as we can trace the English vocables (A.-S. *ræcan*, *ræhte* and *rēcan*, *rôhte*), it is hardly worth while to set children at work upon the metaphysics of Anglo-Saxon word-building. On p. 48 we find the word *husband* explained once more, as "the *band* or *bond*, that is *head* of the house." Now it is not clear to us that *band*=*head*. Worcester and Richardson, who name this explanation of Skinner's, suggest the true source of=*band*, *i. e.*, *bonda* from *buan*=to dwell. Even Smith, *Hand-book of Etymology*, gives the right etymon. *Wife* may indeed have signified *weaver* once, but Dr. Mahn does not hint at this derivation, Wedgwood declines to admit it, and Morris distinctly rejects it. *Brunt*, p. 49, may possibly be from *burnt* by transposition of letters. So thinks Trench, following Horne Tooke; but Wedgwood is of another mind, and says it means the *shock* and not the *heat* of battle, and cites old English in which it plainly signifies a *blow*. On p. 50 *if* and *and* are affirmed, after Tooke and others, to be the remains

of old imperatives, but Wedgwood and Mahn do not countenance this view, plausible as it appears at first sight. On p. 54 *mis* is inserted in a list of Latin prefixes, *ob* is said to mean *out* in *obviate*, and *subterfuge* is defined a "*flying under*." Two pages after, *let* is given as a Latin suffix. Turn another leaf, and *exigency* is defined as "the state of being necessary to be *done*;" it is named here only because it professes to be an etymological or "literal" definition. On the next page we have *amicus* and *inimicus* which may be charged to the "little Latin" of the proof-reader. P. 83, a *peddler* is said to be "a trader who travels *on foot*," and the Latin *pes* is given as its original. The definition may be right, we admit; but the word is not from the Latin, whatever *pad* or *ped* may mean. P. 95, *astron* is defined "the stars;" p. 105, *oplon* ignores the *spiritus asper*. *Sincere* is said, p. 107, to have been applied originally to honey, and to signify "without wax." Freund says its etymology is unknown, and Wedgwood seems equally at a loss. In this country a sweet hodge-podge of various ingredients used to be hawked from house to house as "Southern honey," and the bees' wings and fragments of comb contained in it were the unquestioned proofs of its genuineness. The familiar phrase, "Sweeter than honey and the honey-comb," that is, than purest honey, is of itself almost proof that *sincere* cannot be *sine cera*. On page 108 *plané* is defined "a wanderer;" *zodiakos*, "animal;" *epi*, "away," and *genao* is presented as a Greek word. *Impromptu* is given as Latin on p. 120, and *caput mortuum* is defined as "*the lifeless head*,"—not a very helpful explanation; and p. 121, *non est inventus* is said to signify "*It is not found*," a rendering which, considering the literalness of the translation last cited, can hardly be allowed to stand. There is manifestly need here of more care or of more scholarship. We do not quite agree with the assertion, p. 52, that "to pursue this study does not require any knowledge of Latin" or Greek. The teacher of it will certainly have need at times, if not constantly, of the very amplest equipment.

The definitions of the work are often inexact, introducing ideas not expressed by the words defined, but only associated with them. As etymological explications they err by

surplusage. For instance, p. 52, *educate* is said to be from *duco*, I draw, and *e*, out, and "therefore" to mean, "to draw out *the faculties of the mind*." On the next page, *ambition* is defined as "a going round *to seek votes*." *Creed*, p. 69, is said to be "a summary of *Christian belief*." *Auto*, p. 105, is Englished by "*one's self*."

Now it may be said that this is hypercriticism; that the things to which we take exception are minute. Very well; whoever does not care for accuracy in the little things of etymology, had best leave it for less delicate work. Nowhere is there more need of discriminating judgment, combined with exact learning, than in the little things, which are the great things, of linguistics. It is because of our sense of the merits of this little book that we have bestowed so much attention upon the mistakes which caught our eye upon a rapid reading. And we have cited authorities chiefly to show how abundant and how accessible are the means of correcting or avoiding such errors as we have noted. Our own mind is not made up as to the extent to which Etymology, or "Word-Analysis," should be taught to children; but we are clear in this, that they should learn nothing which they will be forced subsequently to unlearn. Our motto is, The truth, or nothing.

MANY text-books on the science of Physiology and Hygiene have been presented to the schools and colleges of this country during the past few years. These are chiefly abridgments of the larger works used in medical colleges; and as Physiology is taught in those schools with a direct reference to the cure of disease, these books retain more or less of this character. But the study of Physiology in other than medical schools should have direct reference to the *preservation of health* rather than to the *cure of disease*. It has been the leading purpose of Dr. Brown in his new work<sup>(2)</sup> to make HYGIENE the prominent feature of this book, and all other studies introduced subordinate to it. We think the author's claims are well wrought out in a very handsome little book of 286 pages.

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<sup>(2)</sup> ELEMENTS OF PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE. By R. T. Brown, M.D., Chemist in chief, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Publishers.

THE merits of Dr. Ernst Curtius' "History of Greece"<sup>(3)</sup> it is not necessary for us to set forth anew. The second volume, as well as the present, has been subjected to careful revision, after the last German edition, and provided with an index. In these points it has the advantage of the English issue. The volume begins with the opening of the Peloponnesian War, and brings the story down to the end of the Decelean War, covering a period of about thirty years, closing in the summer of B. C. 404. Comparing this with the previous volumes, we note that the references to original sources are more numerous, though by no means equaling those of Grote. The latter is exhaustive not only, but to most men exhausting also, requiring eight volumes to reach the point at which Curtius arrives in three. To those who have come to feel that art is very long as compared with the shortness of life, the brevity of Dr. Curtius' work will commend it, over and above its excellencies of construction and style. No student of history can afford to lack this work and Mommsen's Rome, lately issued by the same publishers.

MESSRS. ELDRIDGE & BRO. have just published "A French Verb Book, embracing a Comprehensive Analysis of the Conjugations, with a new method for the formation of the tenses." By Ernest Lagarde. 130 pages.

MESSRS. MASON, BAKER & PRATT have published "The Bryant and Stratton Business Arithmetic. A new work, with practical problems and valuable tables of reference." 564 pages.

MESSRS. J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co. have published "Geometrical Analysis, or the construction and solution of various geometrical problems from Analysis." By Benjamin Hallowell. 279 pages.

CHASE'S WRITING SPELLER AND DEFINER, published by Adams, Blackmer & Lyon Publishing Co., is having a great success in the West.

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(3) THE HISTORY OF GREECE. By Professor Dr. Ernst Curtius. Translated by A. W. Ward, M.A. Revised with an index by A. W. Packard, Ph. D. Prof. in the College of New Jersey. Vol. III. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.



MR. FROUDE's new work is a "History of Ireland." The initial volume will be published in this country.

JOHN S. C. ABBOTT has prepared a new series of books for the young—"Lives of Early American Pioneers and Patriots."

JOHN FISKE, lecturer on the Positive Philosophy at Harvard College, is making extracts from "Taine's History of English Literature." The book will appear soon.

PROF. JOHN S. HART is to prepare, during his absence in Germany, a popular book on the German Universities.

GUIZOT'S Correspondence will be published shortly, in six or more volumes.

MR. MOTLEY, it is said, will soon have ready for publication the first instalment of his "History of the Thirty Years' War."

AN immense undertaking is being published in Germany—"A literary biographical dictionary to the history of German national literature."

CARL GUTZKOW'S new novel, "Fritz Ellrodt," is highly praised in Germany.

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*MISCELLANEA.*

ONE of the pests which dog civilization—the more so the further it advances—is the fear of ridicule. Is there anybody living who has not often been laughed out of what he ought to have done, and laughed into what he ought not to have done? Who has not sinned? Who has not been a renegade from duty? Who has not stifled his best feelings? who has not mortified his noblest desires, solely to escape being laughed at? And not once, merely; but time after time, until that which has so often been checked becomes stunted and no longer dares hold up its head. And then, after having been laughed down ourselves, we join the pack who go about laughing down others.

"ST. JEROME, in his retreat at Bethlehem, endeavored to cure his mind of its hankering after classical literature by submitting his body to repeated flagellations, the very method which in our public schools is applied, quite as ineffectually, for the opposite purpose.

JESSE OLNEY, the eminent geographer and author of Olney's Geography and Atlas, died at Stratford, Conn., on the 30th of July.

A HARVARD student defines flirtation to be attention without intention.

MUSIC OF ROLLING SAND.—At the late meeting of the British Association for the advancement of Science, Captain H. S. Palmer contributed an interesting paper on An Acoustic Phenomenon at Jebel Nagus, in the Peninsular of Mount Sinai. Jebel Nagus is a peculiar sand slope, from which loud and mysterious noises are frequently heard to proceed, exciting the superstitions of the Bedouin and wonder of travelers. The slope is about two hundred feet in height. The sand, which is of a pale yellowish-brown color, appears to be that of a neighboring desert. Its grains are large and consist entirely of quartz. The sand of the slope is so pure and fine, and in its usual condition so perfectly dry, and lies at so high an angle (nearly thirty degrees) with the horizon, as to be set in motion by the slightest cause. When any considerable quantity is thus in motion, rolling slowly down the slope, like some vicious fluid, then is heard, at first a deep, swelling, vibrating moan, rising gradually to a dull roar, loud enough when at its height to be almost startling, and then gradually dying away till the sand ceases to roll. Captain Palmer said that this sound is very difficult to describe exactly; it is not metallic, nor like the sound of a bell, nor yet like that of a nagus. Perhaps the very hoarsest note of an Æolian harp, a deep-toned finger-glass, most closely resembles it, save that there is less music in the sound of this rolling sand. It may also be likened to the noise produced by air rushing into the mouth of an empty metal flask or bottle; sometimes it almost approaches the roar of thunder, and sometimes it resembles the deeper note of a violincello, or the hum of a humming-top.